2: Masters E-5 (1951) 1953 MA11 Kurd MA11
Rowandus

Abstract

ROWANDUZ; A KURDISH ADMINISTRATIVE
AND MERCANTILE CENTER
by William M. Masters

121 105 This study has two purposes, the first of which is an analysis and interpretation of the culture of Rowanduz, a Kurdish administrative and mercantile town of northern Iraq. In carrying out this purpose, it is necessary to make reference to wider cultural horizons in Iraq and the Middle East. On the other hand, inasmuch as detailed, localized treatments of the Kurds have not been previously attempted, this study of Rowanduz is able to contribute to the ethnology of the Middle East. The Kurds are a Muslim people [101] numbering several millions, who inhabit the mountainous [141] region where the frontiers of Iraq, Iran, Russia, Syria, [131] and Turkey meet. The second purpose of this study is the delineation of the impact of the modern state on the structure of the society of the town and the district within [114] which it lies. The materials were obtained from seven weeks' intensive investigation in the summer of 1951.

An analysis and interpretation of the culture of Rowanduz are presented in six areas of discussion: 1) [128] the administrative center, 2) the mercantile center, 3) house, dress, and diet, 4) the society, 5) the family, [161] 6) religious life. The population of the town numbers about 5000 and is basically made up of merchants,

[p. i(a)]

105 craftsmen, laborers, and servants. The town dominates
121 a large district of agricultural villages both as a
center of government administration and as one of commerce.
Detailed descriptionsof the aspects of life pertinent to
the areas of discussin are given.

The most important focus of investigation, connected with the second objec of the study, is found to be the society of the town. Formerly, Kurdish society, a composite of both tribal and feudal systems, was "primitive" or "pseudo-primitive" in character. It consisted of a mass of commoners, tenants or tribesmen, ruled by a hereditary aristocracy, and advancement from the first class to the second was impossibl. The incursion of the modern state has added a new class to this society, a government elite, and offers the possibility of attaining the highest social rank through educatin to the commoners of the older systems

The conclusins implement the two purposes of the study. 1) Kurdish culture, as represented in Rowandus, is discovered to be strongly regulated by Islam and to have many general similarities to that of Islamic peoples elsewhere, in spite of numerous peculiarities. 2) The impact of the modern state is changing the structure of Kurdish society and threatens to eliminate the native aristocracy by replacing it with the government elite. The Kurdish chieftains have reacted to this with a series of revolts, while many of the commoners are being absorbed into the new order, particularly in towns like Rowandus. Popular understanding of th reaction, as well as of the transformat

[p. i(b)]

of the commoners into a body of citizenry, is obscured by a nationalistic ideology directed against the rulers (who belong to other ethnic groups) of the Kurds. A movement such as this has important relevance to the contemporary Middle East at large. 105 121

[p. i(c)]

second was the diversion of some of the chieftains at the expense of commercial travelers who, of course, had reason to complain of the tolls exacted from them. It is ridiculous, however, to suppose that the Kurds as a body are a race of murderers and thieves. 579

An investigation of Kurdish life, the first object of this study, has value, not simply because the people have so often been maligned, but for the reason that the ethnology of the Middle East, a field which has only recently begun to receive adequate attention must be built up from accurate, localized descriptions. If broader analyses of contemporary Islamic culture are to be undertaken, as well as historical studies, they demand a body of data which admits of verification, the work of observers whose motives are scientific, rather than the loose aggregation of anecdotes and generalizations one has to deal with at present. One may profitably study Kurdish life, because it has been almost untouched as far as primary observation is concerned and, as the culture of a non-Arab people whose language and background is Indo-European, an inquiry into the effect of Islam in modifying its formation would not be without regard. One may properly seek to present those elements which may be proven to be unique with the Kurds and those others which may be attributed to the influence of Islam and other peoples. It is convenient here to mention the recent monograph of E. R. Leach, Social and Economic Organization of the Rowanduz Kurds, which, with the exception of some studies made many years 121 184

age and published in Russian by V. F. Minorsky, unavailable to the investigator, seems to be the first attempt to deal in systematic fashion with the people themselves.[1] Leach's study, however, is brief and neglects a number of aspects of life, for example, the ceremonies surrounding birth, circumcision, marriage, and death, of which treatment would be desirable. Secondly, the "Rowanduz area" in Leach's work includes a wide region of investigation ranging from Erbil to the Iranian frontier and, with a few exceptions, his remarks cannot be referred to a particular village or town. Lastly, he was primarily concerned with the agricultural villages and has little to say about the town of Rowanduz itself.

In addition to a primary, comprehensive description of Kurdish life, a second problem, of importance to the ethnology of the Middle East as a whole, is almost forced on one. The first facet of this is the question of Kurdish nationalism, the repercussions of which have recently directed a great deal of popular attention to this group. Nationalism, which requires no new definition here, is a variant of ethnocentrism. In its best known contemporary forms it evolved in Europe during the last two centuries. The nation, in such thinking, is differentiated from others by criteria, often highly fictional, of race or culture. The goal of nationalism is the realization of an autonomous state. In this it achieves a political aim, but its real

[1]Leach, 1940.

determinants are usually economic, the reaction against exploitation by those considered to be aliens. Occasionally it conceals the desire to exploit others, as exemplified in the recent cases of "Germans" of Danzig or the Sudetenland. The trappings of European nationalism are singularly uniform. The nationalists find for their group a glorious historical past and a wealth of intellectual and artistic achievements. It is interesting to consider how many national "epic poems" and folk heroes have come to light in Europe in the last century. Nationalism of this type has characteristically been developed among the educated upper and middle classes from whom it descended to the mass of the people. In this restricted form, nationalism as an ideology has spread over much of the civilized world from Europe, and found recruits in the Middle East among the subjects of the Ottoman Empire, such as the Albanians, Armenians, and Greeks. With those dissatisfied with Turkish domination and attracted by the extravagant new philosophy were the Kurds.

> In the autumn of 1908, a Kurdish club was established in Constantinople . . . with the object of studying the essential principles which must govern the organization of the nation and the homeland. They published a newspaper . . . In the first few numbers of the journal, leaders . . . laid great emphasis on 'acquiring and organising a good language,' as a key to learning and civilization. Details were published showing the wealth of Kurdish folklore and unwritten literature . . . it was suggested that a national Kurdish force should be raised on the basis of tribal regiments . . . Similar Kurdish Clubs were established also at Baghdad, Mosul and Diarbekr to promote the same ideas and methods . . . This common passion for education formed a close bond between the

> students who met each other not only at school and public meetings, but also at social gatherings where they could talk and exchange their views.[1]

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Kurdish nationalism in the European sense thus had its first protagonists among the educated Kurdish officials, officers, professional men, and students of the Ottoman Empire, not the chieftains and the people themselves.

Nationalism, which has an independent state as its goal, is something quite different from the transition of primitive into civilized society. It is held that the basis of membership in a primitive society is one of kinship while that of civilized is one of territorial distinctions and property relations. There is thus a fundamental difference between the two in structure. This thesis, one of the central problems of ethnological theory, was well outlined by Maine:

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> The history of political ideas begins, in fact, with the assumption that kinship in blood is the sole possible ground of community in political functions nor is there any of those subversions of feeling, which we term emphatically revolutions so startling and so complete as the change which is accomplished when some other principle--such as that, for instance of local contiguity--establishes itself for the first time as the basis for common political action.[2]

Maine was joined by other nineteenth century anthropologists and writers in asserting the change from primitive to civilized society was qualitative. Morgan, for example, wrote:

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[1] Safrastian, 1948, pp. 70-71.

[2] Maine, 1888, p. 124.

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> It may be here premised that all forms of government are reducible to two general plans, using the word plan in its scientific sense. In their bases the two are fundamentally distinct. The first, in order of time, is founded upon persons, and upon relations purely personal, and may be distinguished as a society (societas) . . . The second is founded upon territory and upon property, and may be distinguished as a state (civitas). The township, or ward, circumscribed by metes and bounds, with the property it contains, is the basis or unit of the latter, and political society is the result. Political society is organized upon territorial areas, and deals with property as well as with persons through territorial relations.[1]

More recently this point of view was challenged by Lowie, among others, who claimed the difference was merely quantitative:

> The traditional distinction established by Maine and Morgan retains its validity in so far as conceptually a union of neighbors is different from a union of kinsmen. It must even be conceded that the blood tie is frequently the overshadowing element in governmental activities of primitive peoples. Yet, though it often dwarfs the territorial factor, it never succeeds in eliminating it . . . The basic problem of the state is thus not that of explaining the compromise by which ancient peoples achieved the step from a government by personal relations to one of territorial contiguity only. The question is rather to show what processes strengthened the local tie which must be recognized as not less ancient than the rival principle.[2]

Without arguing the question, in which the advantage seems to this writer to lie with Maine and his successors, the problem will be seen to have relevance to the recent history of the Kurds in Iraq. Civilized society is represented in their situation by the modern state, the monarchy of Iraq.

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[1] Morgan, 1909, p. 6.

[2] Lowie, 1927, pp. 73-73.

and it is important not to confuse the ideal of the intellectual nationalists, a free Kurdish commonwealth, with that which the chieftains and their people are now striving to preserve, a society quite unlike the state.

The Kurds, occupying a mountainous terrain, were but superficially governed by the Iranian and Ottoman governments. Inasmuch as the roads were poor or the country impossible for artillery, the Kurds, a well-armed people, were usually the military equals of their governors. The control of the Iranians and Turks was thus largely confined to the maintenance of police posts and army installations and the attempt, often in vain, to maintain public order and collect a few taxes. Helmut von Moltke, writing in 1838, notes:

> It is a well-known fact that the Ottoman empire comprises vast regions in which the Porte exercises no real authority. It is certain that the Padishah (the Turkish Sultan) has to reconquer widespread regions within the territory of his own state. To this category belong the highlands (of Kurdistan) between the Tigris and the Persian frontier.[1]

In recent decades, however, the Kurds, notably in Iraq and Turkey, have been subjected to the full impact of the modern state and some remarkable changes, comparable to similar developments elsewhere in the Middle East, are beginning to take place, challenging the whole structure of their society. This last, as will be seen, is one which is at once tribal and feudal, formerly directed by a landed aristocracy. A

[1]Quoted in Safrastian, 1948, p. 30.

characteristic of it was its extreme decentralization. The Kurdish tenant or tribesman has now suddenly discovered himself to be a citizen, and the Kurdish chieftain to be without his former economic or political power. A new class, that of officials and officers, has been introduced with an unfamiliar system of society, and the result has not been without conflict. The fact that the reaction has been linked with European nationalism makes it the more interesting. The second object of this study is the delineation of this collision, and a consideration of the alterations in Kurdish life since Ottoman times. The recognition that nationalism, commonly considered in the Middle East as a European ideology in new dress, may be paired in some instances with economic and social upheavals of a different order is a matter of great importance in the analysis of the area.

The Kurdish population of Iraq has been estimated at about 400,000, although figures vary considerably, and occupies the mountainous areas north of Mosul, northeast of Erbil, and east of Kirkuk. In many instances their villages have spilled out on the flat expanses of Upper Mesopotamia. A small portion of this populace is nomadic, wintering their flocks in the same plains area, and seeking the pastures of the uplands in the summer. Kurdish Iraq provides a striking contrast to the sun-baked flats and deserts of the central and southern provinces. The terrain is rugged, with peaks reaching 8000 feet above sea level, and is characterized by precipitous heights, deep gorges,

route, a path unsuitable for vehicles, but still used by the villagers, and several tracks lead off to the villages at its rear. Rowandus proved itself advantageous for an initial investigation of Kurdish culture, for it has a basic population of merchants and landowners whose life is considerably richer and more complex than that of the poor farmers and shepherds. To obtain the most complete portrayal, of course, a desirable supplement should be obtained from the villagers and the nomads in future work. In relation to the second problem, however, the impact of the state on Kurdish society, Rowandus was ideal, because it was in the town that the new class of society, that of the government officials and officers, had replaced the few Ottoman officials and the first signs of change could be observed. The first object of this study, then, is the analysis of Rowandus as an administrative and mercantile center and Kurdish life as it is to be observed there. The second object is the determination of the way in which the imposition of a new order of society has affected the Kurds.

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CHAPTER II

THE ADMINISTRATIVE CENTER

To give a description of Rowanduz, its administrative and economic importance, as well as its social and religious life, demands a certain excursus above and beyond the actual physical limits of the town. To understand the role of the town, not only as a rural center, but in broader cultural horizons, one must have some understanding of the areas within which it lies. It is not intended to enter into an exhaustive discussion of either regional cultures or of a civilization, for that presupposes a much more extended survey than either the basis or the framework of this study can support, but rather to indicate the proper perspective in which the town must be viewed. The most convenient beginning to this task is not to be found in an economic or social background, but in the government, for in proceeding from its delineation, in many cases generalized with respect to district and to nation, an effective appreciation of later discussion can be formed.

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Thus a clearer definition of the position of Rowanduz as an administrative center requires in some wise an appreciation of the constitution of Iraq itself, on whose northeastern border lies the district dominated by the town. A segment of the old Ottoman Empire, the territory of modern Iraq was

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Attention might be directed to the land of Kawandus itself. Before the Russians burned the old town, the present site above the valley was occupied by only a few Ottoman buildings, summer residences, and gardens. Most of the choicest lands in the new town are owned by Lali Khan and Ra'uf Effendi whose families had titles from Ottoman times. In the lower priced lands of the modern upper town there is a variety of tenure, government (amiriy), private (temm), and religious endowment (vaqf), but the two most important owners are those mentioned here.

It is somewhat unfortunate, in treating the economics of the Kawandus district and the position of its principal town within such a system, to be unable to present an exact quantitative analysis. In the absence of government statistics, and faced with the widespread distrust of the populace toward inquiries which might bear some relation to taxation, one must be satisfied with a generalized description of a primary nature. This need not be regarded as a deficit, inasmuch as the more important conclusions of this study have reference to social structure, an emphasis, however, which in no wise implies that the economic background is not critically germane to the discussion. It is therefore possible, in closing this section, to re-emphasize certain generalities which statistical information would not seem likely to modify in any serious fashion.

The size and importance of any town can be governed by a number of things, environmental, economic, social, or religious.

CHAPTER VI

THE FAMILY

In treating the families of Ravendun, it is necessary to describe in detail those of the officials there, for the officials and officers are of diverse ethnic origins, Greek, Kurd, and Turk, and they are often accompanied or unaccompanied by their wives. Even when settled temporarily in the town with a spouse, they regard only as part the larger social unit to which they belong elsewhere in Iraq. Some of the officials and officers had yet [illegible] nothing reference to the officials whenever necessary, to direct attention to the Turkish populace, aristocrats and commoners. It has been chosen to treat the family of a wealthy merchant as typical, and to draw comparisons with others from this central treatment.

It is important at the outset to define what is understood by the Turkish "family." For the townspeople, the term most regularly used is mal, "house," (perhaps from arabic, mal, "property"). The word is alternately used for the physical structure itself or for the group of relatives to be found in such a dwelling. Postmarital residence is normally patrilocal, the groom taking his bride to his father's house or to a new dwelling furnished

or marriage, have their focus in that place, rather than 525
in the town. It is interesting that this class, which 593
regards itself as "modern" and "progressive," should re- [44]
gard even things held to be reactionary by some of the town people, specifically the elaborate segregation of women. Even a politically-minded official would not dare to let his wife have the same freedom in the town she can enjoy in England or some other city. The townspeople often commented on the peculiar behavior of the medical officer who kept his wife in the greatest seclusion, although those who had caught a glimpse of her said she was no particular beauty. This segregation on the part of the officials and officers [illegible] which on the basis of similar wealth who do the same to their own wives and daughters where otherwise they might have permitted them greater liberty.

The primary task of this section has been to present 539
an analysis of the family life of the average townsman, and [n.1].
it is important to notice that the family does not seem to constitute an important area of change in the transformation of the culture. Dr. al Ittouli, like so many others, remarked that the society of the town had changed for the worse from thirteen days, but, on going over all of the affairs of the family, he was only able to conclude that [58]
"youth had greater respect for age" fifty years ago. In spite of this observation, the family in Ramadan is still a distinctly patriarchal organization and its members are

the son-in-law of the Prophet and his descendants. Something of the dictative aversion of the Pennite Kurd for his eastern neighbor has already been seen, although phrased as much in ethnic as in religious terms. Of the four Sunnite schools of religious law, Shafi'ite, Malikite, Hanafi'ite, and Hanbalite, the Kurds nominally belong to that founded by Abu Hanifa (d. 767), originally a following noted for its liberal tendencies and the admission of logic in formulating legislation, now, however, crystallized into a rite not differing too greatly from the surviving Schools.

Beyond this brief classification, it is of no purpose here to enter into an extended discussion of the theological content of Islam insofar as it does not pertain to daily life, for, not only are these matters exhaustively and competently treated elsewhere, they are largely of no account to the townsman or chieftain. The investigator was often told, on inquiring into some matter of religion, that "one must ask the mulla these questions," just as many Christians refer weightier queries to their priest or minister. In noting the Shiite insistence that the successors of the Prophet be of his own blood, the mezrik (Pleiad*) or descendant of the tribe of Mohammed might be mentioned. Many persons in the Koweisan district, as well as several in the town itself, lay claim to this distinction, which carries with it the prerogative of wearing a green turban and the enjoyment, if they choose to exploit it, of a reputation for sanctity. This descent

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS

This study has had two objects, the first of which has been to present a primary description of Kurdish life as observed in an administrative and economic context. This attempt has not been without its limitations, intimated from time to time, the chief of which is the inaccessibility of the quantitative data desirable in the definitive analysis of a people's life. Similarly, the complete account of almost any culture was much beyond [illegible] and the town itself, was forced to limit the scope of his inquiries and in this presentation to omit or condense material which might overburden the discussion. Some subjects, such as Islamic law or the details of government administration, although they are an integral part of the life of the town, may properly be found elsewhere, and others, such as Kurdish folklore or music, present objects of study in themselves. Many topics, thus, have not been exhausted, and further investigation, particularly among the villages, would provide welcome amplification. Nevertheless, it is felt that the first aim has been achieved, an accurate, comprehensive description of the culture of a particular Kurdish town, which is not too unsympathetic to prevent the appreciation by anyone other than the

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specialist and which can provide the material for broader analyses of the economics, society, or religion of the Middle East. The value of investigations undertaken in a particular town or locale is obvious. Too often the student of the ethnology of the Middle East is forced to glean his information from the chance remarks and anecdotes of administrators, missionaries, and travelers. If such a writer happens to comment on the wedding customs of one village, or, several pages later, outlines the funeral rites of another, one cannot legitimately infer that marriage and burial are the same in both villages. A body of this type of material exists for the Kurds themselves, but it has not been thought necessary to have reference to it. One must take some engineer or missionary to task for an observation, seemingly incorrect, which cannot be identified with reference to a definite locale, nor does there appear to be much value in noting their occurrence. The dangers of generalization are marked, for example, Soane, who writes:

> Turkish women are comparatively free to come and go as they like; they are veiled and run up open countenance, but in almost all tribes they are unveiled.[1]

This statement, as has been shown for Suwaidia, is not valid. It has also been felt that a detailed comparison of life in Suwaidia with that of other groups in the Middle East would be worth little, for the student has at his disposal comprehensive, localized treatments only of the Arab Bedouin, the Egyptian peasantry, and certain peoples of North Africa.

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[1] Soane, 1912, p. 168.

The most productive comparisons would be with the Turks or the Persians, but, unfortunately, no such monographs are as yet available. To utilize the scanty and widely scattered materials on Turkish or Persian life would be at best haphazard. This study of Rowanduz, with certain exceptions, stands by itself, in the belief that it will afford concrete data for the comparative treatment of the future.

Something of the context of Kurdish life, as observed in Rowanduz, has been presented. It has been seen that the town conducts, partly in an administrative and partly in a commercial way, a large agricultural district. The bulk of the townspeople are merchants, craftsmen, and servants who depend for their livelihood on commerce with the villagers and the patronage of government personnel. The basis of the town's importance is both economic and political. Life within the household, the structure of society, and religion have been treated. What is perhaps of great importance in the whole demonstration that the Kurds are not savages devoid of culture, that they are not all "robbers" and need not "kill six or seven men" in order to be respected. Till the exception of revolts and blood feuds, the district is relatively peaceful and normally one is merely in danger of molestation. The old brigandage, carried on largely by the chieftains as a lucrative diversion, was directed against commercial travelers who could protect themselves from it by the simple expedient of making "gifts" in advance. A district population of some fifty thousand

could routinely support itself by robbery alone. It is interesting that the Arab Bedouins, among whom the vendetta and brigandage are just as well marked, are not often accused of being a race of savages and criminals. The Bedouin, unlike the Kurd, has been romanticized rather than condemned by those who have had little experience with him. Kurdish life, to be sure, is not distinguished by its intellectual or artistic achievements, but, by the same token, neither is that of Medieval Scotland, Sicily, or Albania, mountainous regions inhabited by peoples of a similar temperament. The most interesting characteristic of Kurdish culture is the way in which it has been moulded by Islam, and, in this, it exhibits similarities to that of Islamic peoples everywhere. It is quite testimony to the character of Islam and to the force of its protagonists in the Kurdish mountains that the peculiarities which may have obtained in pagan Kurdish society or religion have been so thoroughly submerged into a standard pattern. Aside from minor deviations, one is able to discover little which strikes him as strange or anomalous.

The second object of this study has been the delineation of the impact of the modern state on Kurdish life, and it is necessary to discuss the conclusions reached in this respect in much greater detail than in the first. The Kurds have been subjected, particularly since the Arab conquests, to rulers of one sort or another, the last of whom were the Ottoman Turks, but this control was, for the most part, superficial. Ottoman administration in Kurdistan

was in reality that of a tribute empire, concerned with the collection of taxes and recruits. Even in these two last tasks there was a contest, often in good humor, between the governors and the governed, and the victories were divided. As long as money and men were in reasonably good evidence, the Turks left the Kurds to their own devices. They handed down justice of a sort, but most quarrels never reached their courts. They were not particularly concerned with homicide, insofar as the murdered party was not a Turk, and, above all, they did not tamper with the economic structure of society. The bulk of the taxes were collected, in the best way possible, from the chieftains and landowners, never from the farmers and shepherds. The Kurds regarded these taxes, when they were forced to pay them, as a sort of levy to some superior chieftain. Matters of education or public health received little attention. This does not mean that in certain other areas of the Ottoman Empire there was not a complex bureaucratic government, but in Kurdistan it may be summed up as little more than domiciary control. The gentle character of this administration, compared with that of today, is indicated by the fact that many Kurds look back with nostalgia to the "freedom" of Ottoman times.

In ethnological theory the significant difference between primitive and civilized society is held to have its basis in economics. Membership in a primitive society is defined in terms of kinship relations, usually by "blood,"

and larger confederations of kinship groups are articulated with a similar phraseology. The Kurdish tribe, which has not been extensively discussed, represents in large part such a unit. The lands of the tribe, agricultural or pastoral, are the property of kinship groups, extended patrilineal families, as are the flocks and herds, and an individual cannot alienate them in quantity without difficulty. Chieftainship is hereditary, commonly with the consentic approval of the men of the tribe. Some chieftains are undistinguished from their tribesmen save in the size of their families' holdings, and others receive a customary share of the annual produce. The Kurdish tribe, then, is traditionally an alliance of extended patrilineal families, sometimes with the fiction of a common ancestor, and membership in the tribe depends on membership in the family, a matter of "blood" descent. Tribal life is directed by the chieftain, and the murder of a member or the theft of property by an outsider is never permitted to go unavenged.

Feudalism, an arrangement different than that of the tribe, requires no redefinition here. It is a personal exchange of duties between landlord and tenant, and is not represented in the Ruwenzori district by the nomads whose society is exclusively tribal. It seems to have arisen in two ways, in the first of which the chieftains of nomadic groups took agricultural villages under their protection. One might remark again that the sword, because of his mobility and firepower, has a military advantage over the villager. In the second, some powerful families, by the

with respect to value. Feudalism, while it may not be "primitive," is herarchal with a primitive, tribal system and uses its terminology.

In civilized society, in contrast to primitive, ownership is not bid to be based on descent but on residence and propey relations, and this form of society is represented by a state. This does not mean that the state does enter the primitive terminology, for, out of numerous exampl, one might remember the insistence of the National Socialist government of Germany prior to the second World war o"blood" and "race." Of greater importance, the state has a diferent system of economy, because, depending on its constitution, it defines its resources as its own, as the personal property of its citizens, or both. The state in this case is not a newcomer to Iraq, because as some of the earliest examples known in history were developed there, it, at least for some centuries, it has been a stronger institution. It has been seen how, in the Rwandan area, it has [illegible] tion of life. Youths are recruited to the army, not to the following of a chieftain, and the military forces and the police have the task of regulating public order. Matters of civil and criminal law are decided in its courts, and the important matters of inheritance, marriage, and divorce require its authorization. Students may, if they are able, study in its schools and the sick can avail themselves of its medical facilities. Perhaps more importantly, it has insisted on the classification of land, buildings belonging

It has had a new class added to its society, that of the officials and officers, and, more than any agricultural village, has been absorbed into an industrial system. The government elite of the town are on an equal footing, as far as prestige is concerned, with the local aristocracy and enjoy the advantage of having the real power. Already certain changes, which might have been anticipated, are beginning to take place. A few merchants in the town have adopted the European dress of the official class, and some are determined that their sons, if humanly possible, will be educated and take a higher place in the new hierarchy of society, something previously impossible. It is in Kawandus, then, that a new social structure is being realized as it is elsewhere, for example, among the Kurds Arabs of the southern provinces. It is one of the ironies of Iraq, rather than the tribal and feudal system which is characterized by the absolute difference between aristocrat and commoner. At present, the contest between the government and the Kurdish nobility has only been partially crossed, but, causing some major event, it seems probable that the Kurdish chieftains will be eliminated as a distinctive class and be able to save themselves only as landowners and participants in the new regime.

The relevance of the second object of this study to ethnology is not that it has formulated something new or unique, but that it supplements the large body of material already gathered on the transition of primitive into

civilized society. For the ethnologist the Middle East presents an important but little-studied area in which the impact of European civilization on those that are older, as well as societies still primitive or feudal, may provide the means for the most productive investigation. This study has attempted a primary description of life in Rowanduz and the collision of this civilization, here represented by the Arabs rather than Europeans, with a little known Islamic culture. It is believed that the absorption of the commoner group into a new system of society in which advance is possible is one of the most significant trends taking place in many parts of the Middle East today. That European nationalism was almost none of these developments, which are quite different ideas, say, the reaction of the Egyptian state against British imperialism, is a matter which must be taken into account.

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FATHER'S BROTHER'S DAUGHTER MARRIAGE IN KURDISTAN

FREDRIK BARTH

[1] THE PREVALENCE of preferential father's brothers' daughter marriage in the Middle East, and its association with Islam, has frequently received comment. Yet no clear picture of the possible structural implications of this form of preferential marriage has emerged, nor of the actual distribution and frequency of the practice. The present paper attempts to analyse the relationship between the Kurdish form of segmentary lineage organization and this marriage pattern.

[2] Any form of unilineal descent in a stable or expanding population constitutes a restricting system where succeeding generations in many lines tend to be larger and more inclusive than the preceding. It is this short, generally to compressed form, which is utilized to organize a descent group in the form of a segmentary lineage organization. This organizational form was named by Gifford and later by Peel, who called it a "lineage," and first analysed fully by Evans-Pritchard.[1] Recent work on this type of organization has been lucidly summarized by Fortes.[2]

[3] In almost all the lineage systems described in the literature, the lineage, or the class of which it is a part, is an exogamous group. This fact of exogamy has important implications, e.g. for the development of dispersal rules and consolidation of a "daughter's son" relationship as a mechanism for granting foreign lineages or the dominant lineage of an area (as described for the Nuer), and it is further frequently reflected in the whole construction of kinship terminology.[3]

Lineage exogamy is, however, an essential feature of lineage systems. The manner in which the marriage pattern in a population may be, a minor share of unilineal descent affects an equally clear framework on which a segmentary lineage organization may be erected, or a [illegible] which a segmentary lineage organization usually underwent in the political relations of segments and whole lineages over large patterns may, as a result, be "distorted" from their role in defining the relations between political groups. The link of association of lineage organization and exogamy is common among Semitic and Iranian tribes of the Middle East,

1 E. W. Gifford, Miwok Lineages and the Political Unit in Aboriginal California (American Anthropologist, vol. 28, pp. 389-401, 1926); Raymond Firth, We, the Tikopia (London, 1936); E. E. Evans-Pritchard, The Nuer: Tribe and Clan (Sudan Notes and Records, 1935-1937), and The Nuer (London, 1940).

2 Meyer Fortes, The Structure of Unilineal Descent Groups (American Anthropologist, vol. 55, pp. 17-41, 1953).

3 E. Peters, Social Organization of the Western Pueblos (Chicago, 1948).

3: Barth E-5 (1951) 1954 MA11 Kurd MA11

and in the same area possibly also among some Caucasian groups.[4] However, although marriage patterns do not function to define the relations between lineages, this does not ensure that marriage relations and removal ties have indeed no relevance of a structural or specifically political nature. The present paper presents an hypothesis regarding these implications in the Kurdish lineage organization, specifically the meaning of a pattern of father's brother's daughter marriage, for the consideration of students working with similar problems in the Middle East.

Portions of Kurdish culture and society have been described elsewhere,[5] but might be summarized briefly. The Kurds are a linguistic and ethnic group, nearly exclusively Moslem by religion, totalling some three million people.[6] They occupy a semi-continuous territory along the hills and mountains east and north of the Fertile Crescent, divided between the modern states of Persia, Iraq, Turkey, the U.S.S.R., and Syria. Some few groups of Kurds have remained nomadic till the present day, following their herds of sheep, goats, and large cattle into the mountains in the summer and down on the plains in the winter. The great majority are today sedentary farmers, many of whom practice a pattern of localized transhumance. The present discussion relates to the southern districts of Iraq Kurdistan, where material was collected in the field from February to August, 1951.

Two basic types of organization were found: a tribal system, based on descent, and a feudal system, based on class and land ownership. The latter is progressively becoming assimilated into the modern structure of the state of Iraq; the former, a patrilineal lineage system, survives only among the nomads and a minority of the farmers in the more isolated territories.

Kurdish tribal organization is a segmentary lineage organization of very simple type. The largest kinship unit, the *tira*, is a maximal lineage, divisible into segments according to the charter of patrilineal descent. The genealogical depth of the *tira* varies. For the sedentary Hamawands (location: Kirkuk Liwa, Iraq), the [illegible] the nomadic Warde Shirit (location: summering in Sulaimani Liwa, Iraq) twelve [illegible] generations.

Several *tira* may be united, though not necessarily, in a political confederacy of variable endurance, the most important in southern Kurdistan being at present

4 Lucy J. Lockwood, *Marriage and the Family in Caucasia* (Ithaca, 1951).

5 V. F. Minorsky, "Kurds and Kurdistan" in *The Encyclopaedia of Islam*, London, 1913; E. B. Soane, *Social and Economic Organization of the Hamawand (Kurdish) Shaikhdom in Iraqi Kurdistan*, no. 1, London, 1916; Fredrik Barth, *Principles of Social Organization in Southern Kurdistan* (Universitetets Etnografiske Museums, Bulletin no. 7, Oslo, 1953).

6 *The Middle East* (Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, 1950).

3: Barth E-S (1951) 195- MA11 Rec'd MA11

[462] the [of] subsidiary of necessity as well as ordinary rites. The following discussion will, for the sake of simplicity, relate only to the Thamesmith, an independent tribe of population ca. 2000-2500, which knows ordinary water rites as well as three gravitation rites.

[477] The Iteaga organization has two main areas of ceremonial land ownership and defense and offense in war. Property rights in land and grazing rights are held jointly by the rite as a whole; exclusive, profitable rights are vested in the localized segments, subdividing compact villages with a population of 50 to 200 individuals. Within the village territory, men have proprietorial rights to certain fields. These rights are passed on from father to son, but are not inalienable, and land is freely redistributed by the village council when the need arises. If a segment becomes extinct, its territory passes as normal inheritance to the other segments of the [same, according to the degree of kinship (no one may own land of segments, "related" excludes "unrelated" from inheritance).

Further, until successful pacification in 1911, the Iteaga men, and still to [a considerable, also a military unit, mobilized in case if a segment were attacked, from without, and divided in opposition according to the segmentary cluster when [738 fights were within the group. Conflicts relating to territorial rights were rife, both 739] within, where they led to feuds, and without, where they led to conquest or loss of territory.

[771 There is a close common between the Kurdish and some African systems in the 473] manner with which the problems of [give and] [take are solved. A man's rights 474] to land are limited to the territory of the village segment of his lineage; a stranger or a person from another lineage segment is accepted into a village only as land [here help ("squats") at dependent rent. The territorial subdivisions of lineage segments [here tends to be maximized to high degree, and there are the kinship mechanisms for developing "unrelated" lineages with land ownership and political rights.[1] The segmentary nature of the territorial lineage segments [self] [identity to [judge], [individual] nearly exclusively [operation] [combination] of [major] and [minor] [segments], [individual] nearly exclusively operation combination of major and minor segments, individual nearly exclusively operation combination of major and minor [segments], individual nearly exclusively operation combination of major and minor segments, individual nearly exclusively operation combination of major and minor segments, individual nearly exclusively operation combination of major and minor segments,

In Barth E-5 (1951) 1954 MA11 Rcvd MA11

Where the case of marrying an unrelated, "stranger" girl is so high and the economic preference for near kin clear, the inducement for the young man to seek a bride among his cousins is evident. Consequently, the young men make the "right" choice though they appear subjectively to feel, and invariably express the opinion, that they are entirely free to seek any bride they might wish. The problem lies in the situation existing when the inclination of the girl's father is, that he should forego his rights to a bridegroom which, in the Kurdish system, constitutes a minor fortune. He can accomplish differently, the central problem is what are the advantages gained in this system by giving one's daughter to a brother's son which compensate one for the loss of the bridegroom.

The answer would seem to lie in the political structure. In the Kurdish lineage system, all groups are subject to a constant pressure towards segmentation and fission, counterbalanced by the interlocking circles of identification normally associated with segmentary descent systems (among the Nuer, territorial vs. descent groups; cross-cutting age-grades among Tallensi, Ifugao the clans collaborative between lineages, etc.). This pressure is particularly evident in factional activity within the villages, and emerges in all functional descriptions of Kurdish life.[1] Kurdish villages are characterized by a constant struggle for political power on the part of a majority of the adult men, or those men women. Such political power is proportional to the number of alliances one can mobilize to support one's claims. In a patrilineal lineage system, a man can expect political support only from his agnatic relatives, those who by descent belong to his political sub-section, and the fraction in the village used to the alignments of the younger men of a small lineage segment around an elder leader. These segments consist primarily of brothers, sons, and brothers' sons. The relation to the latter is most critical. It creates the few potential loci of cleavage between collateral branches. If a man alienates his nephews by refusing them their traditional rights, he loses their political support. If he, on the other hand, gives them his daughters in marriage, the ties are reinforced and lineage solidarity maintained. The girl's father creates an obligation on the part of the brother's son to give him political support by exempting him from paying the bridewealth. The other son-in-law can, in the lineage system, fill this role as political supporter; consequently they must immediately pay bridewealth. The opposition may [illegible] which he gives him. In this way, the payment of bridewealth [illegible]

[1] Cf. C. J. Bak, Principles of a Business in Kurdistan, London, 1945; E. B. Soane, Through Mesopotamia and Kurdistan in Disguise, London, 1926; Hay, op. cit.

Kurdish marriage customs to emphasize the political significance of the lineage system.

3: Barth E-5 (1961) 1956 MA 11 Ward MA 11
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daughter marriage serves to reinforce the political implications of the lineage system.

If this view is generally correct, one would expect to find a high frequency of father's brother's daughter marriage associated with a developed lineage organization in the Middle East, and the frequencies to be appreciably lower in villages with a different type of organization. In the southern Kurdish area, this is clearly so; for other areas, the literature gives no conclusive evidence.

In the southern Kurdish livestock-agricultural territory, neighboring on the above discussed Pharaonic territory, the comparative picture might be summarized as follows: (1) The segmental norms are modified, though not drastically changed. Here rights of potential exercise are not as strongly emphasized, and the ideal of equality between agnates tends to be interpreted in terms of village endogamy rather than with reference to descent groups. (2) Endogamies tend to be lower for all categories of kinsmen, especially those of the local community (this holds true for the villagers, not for the larger towns, where given variations in class and wealth intervene); some villages have made formal agreements that an endogamy should be changed within the village unit, the alternative and undesirable practice way of extending endogamies to the more exchange features are additionally relaxed now. (3) The actual frequency of father's brother's daughter marriage closely drops, while village endogamy (in villages generally larger than those with a low age organization) remains high. A complete census of marriages in one such non-tribal village may serve as an example:

Father's brother's daughter (married)	Father's brother's daughter (widowed)	Other kin (agnatic)	Other relatives	Unrelated, in village	Other village	Total
6	1	1	5	27	25	65

The picture would seem to be consistent with the above segmental theory.

Hilma Granqvist[9] gives some comparable material from an Arab village in Palestine, where the local community is divided into patrilineal descent groups, but called clans, apparently of a segmentary type, but where several of these formerly groups came together in a large village, and have no other political or territorial significance. [illegible] marriages [illegible] agnates in one village.[10]

9 Hilma Granqvist, Marriage Conditions in a Palestinian Village (Helsingfors, 1931).
10 Ibid., pp. 81, 82, 104-105.

INTRODUCTION

In the spring and summer of 1957 the Danish Dokan Expedition was working under Professors Harald Ingholt and Jørgen Lassøe on the Bania plain west of Lower Zab, a tributary of the Tigris in Iraqi Kurdistan. The Expedition concentrated on the excavation of the ancient Tell Shemshāra. Before the expedition left Denmark it offered to take with it a cultural anthropologist from the Ethnographical Department of the National Museum, who, based on the excavation camp on the right bank of the Lower Zab, would have an opportunity to investigate Kurdish villages in the vicinity. The assistance of the Carlsberg Foundation enabled my association with the Danish Dokan Expedition.

Being a woman anthropologist, I was given, in addition to general investigations of Kurdish ethnography, the special task of studying women's cultural patterns, which in Moslim areas is difficult for male investigators to undertake.

The necessary female interpreter for such investigations was obtained through the former Kurdish Minister, Tawfik Wahbi, who at that time was living in Baghdad and was in touch with the Danish Chargé d'Affaires, P. Lyon, succeeded later in the summer of 1957 by F. de Jonquières. I left Denmark in May to join the expedition at the Dokan Dam Site, which is now the dam building area Lower Zab, the Anglo-Kurdish engineering project in the Kurdish mountains started by the Iraq Development Board.

As it transpired that the neighbouring male villages Tapawra-Kakawa, from which the British and Danish engineers obtained some of their workmen, offered excellent possibilities for study, it was arranged through the Resident Engineer of the Dokan Dam Site, Mr. J. G. Campbell, then, while waiting for a woman interpreter, I should be taken as a paying guest to Shaikh Fadhil's home in Tapawra as a member of the village owner's family.

In the course of three visits, through the good offices of Tawfik Wahbi and the mayor of Sulaimaniyah, the capital of the Liwa of Sulaimaniyah, I was gained with a young Kurdish woman called Tawhida Kadir Sa'id, who, accompanied by her 12 year old half-brother, agreed to go with me to the villages mentioned and stay with me in the shaikh's house as long as my work and their [illegible] etc. Where this had worked, complemented by a visit to and stay at the now evacuated and flooded Serry village, Mirza Rasoom, with trips over the mountains to Shaikh and Sergalu, my total of more than months/years in my interpreter's home in Sulaimaniyah, a Kurdish-furnished home, [illegible]

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Map of the Middle East. The shaded panel includes the whole of the author's itinerary, which stretched south of the Kurdish area to the alluvial plains around Baghdad.

were made into the area with maps of known areas were related to my interpreter. In this way Halabja, Rabbiat and Tawella, near the Persian frontier, were visited. As transport the country's poor mountain were used, local cars, primitive local types, mules and horses. If no private horses were available we spent the nights at native Kurdish hotels. With the exception of the necessary visits to the Dokan Dam Site in order to cover the objects it was my task to collect for the Ethnographical Department of the National Museum, and to contact the member of the Danish Dokan Expedition, who every fortnight came to from the excavation camp with the Land Rover for provisions, and a single visit to the excavations site at Tell Shemshara. I lived all the time I was in the country (Mr Mayrhofer Kept) among the Kurds.

It became necessary that I should visit Baghdad at the beginning of August in connection with the Forwarding of my collections. As the expedition was dissolved in the middle of that month, I travelled back alone via Kirkuk to Sulaimani. There I stayed another month, paid a further visit to Tagawerdan [illegible] and went with my interpreter and two brother to Barkan, making a lengthy trip to Rawanduz via Kirkuk, Mosul and Erbil in order to determine some signature variants. When I was to have overtaken my interpreter and an older brother accompanied me to Baghdad where I was given the opportunity of living with Kurds in an Arab town.

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Local map of the area visited. The area is covered by U.S.A.F.'s aeronautical maps Nos. 340, 427 and 428.

Then during my approx. four months stay in Iraqi Kurdistan I did not, as planned, stay among Europeans at the Danish Dokan Expedition's camp with daily, but isolated visits to Kurdish villages, but lived almost uninterruptedly in Kurdish homes. This greatly facilitated the work of the woman interpreter, who would hardly have secured her family's permission to live permanently in an European excavation camp among foreign men even though another woman was present. In addition to the opportunity to follow the life of the village, I also had the chance to study life in an urban environment. In addition, my interpreter, besides being of invaluable assistance in my work of investigating the lives

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[redacted]

[redacted]

[redacted]

[redacted]

CONCLUSION

WOMAN'S POSITION IN THE COMMUNITY

[redacted]

As mentioned by different members of each household there would sometimes appear the problem of Kurdish women in society. With the exception of Yezdi, who distinguishes between the urban upper class and the village dwellers, Kurdish women are referred to under one heading. However, even from the limited material available in my it is evident that there are in all events two different environments, each with its own patterns (and this division ignores the nomadic). Some emphasize that Kurdish women are "... as free as in any European country"[1], and Rowlatt declares that "... in Kurdistan one nevertheless does see Kurdish women (Ygale de Florence)"[2]. Even though in the case of the Kurds we meet quantities somewhere found by a number of the Islamic cultural patterns have undoubtedly been in other Moslem areas, I would point out the risk of using the terms "free position" and "equality" as guide-board in the West when attempting an assessment of the position of Islamic, and in this case Kurdish, women. Freedom and equality are concepts that seem to mirror on the background of the position of Western women when their struggle for changed conditions was in progress in the end of the previous century. These terms bear no relation to the status of Kurdish women of [redacted].

In an attempt to explain the Kurdish woman's position in the community I shall now deal with the various forms of veil and the use made of them, contact with the world around, women's participation in ability of agreement, and the degree of seclusion. I shall discuss also the distribution of authority between men and women in the home, and, finally, the degree of common life in the home. These elements will be investigated within the four Kurdish environments existing within the area visited in Southern Kurdistan.

DIFFERENCE OF VEIL TYPES

The veil. Five different types of veils, each with its function, but differently distributed in the four Kurdish environments, were found as far as we saw. These were as follows: The triangular multi-shoulder veil, dressed, the hood veil, striped, the yellow cotton "Turkish" veil, the white European bridal veil, and the black face veil, [redacted].

The first type, really a shoulder cloth fastened by means of a loop to a ruby worn over the centre of the top, is forbidden among the veils because its material, cotton cloth, interwoven with metal thread, of a green, rose or light-blue colour enables it to be called a veil, and because its function was to hide the neck and [redacted] of the married women. It was an indispensable constituent of a married Kurdish woman's dress more to the evangelical home. The multi-shoulder veil presupposed the presence of a cap, but was occasionally the use of a turban. At Dohuk, for example, it was worn with a white crochet cap [redacted]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
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[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

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[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[77] manipulating these various systems and principles. These competing factions, manipulating the familiar (but in part mutually exclusive) systems, will establish different power hierarchies in different villages, resulting in the present variety of forms of social organization found in the area.

However, one type of basic organization may be said to be dominantly Kurdish. This is usually called *tribal*, and is based on the *lineage principle*. Any movement away from this basic framework of organization will be the result of the above type of manipulations, and may be seen as a step in a *tribe-to-feudalism* process. A special attempt will be made to explore the structure of the tribal group, and to mention to the pressures that tend to lead to its breakdown.

Certain characteristics of the lineage system in its Kurdish application might profitably be noted immediately, to avoid an *Iranian*. The Kurds practise close family endogamy with preferential FaBrDa marriage, and a Kurdish descent group shows many consequent characteristics, among which is a tendency towards constant fragmenting and the establishment of new, independent endogamous subdivisions. The concept of a lineage, as developed for other areas, normally applies to an exogamous grouping. However, the main importance of the lineage concept is in the field of political organization, and it will be seen that the political functions of the Kurdish descent groups and the African lineage groups are essentially similar. This might be expected, if only from the following considerations. Women in Kurdish society are normally of minimal political importance, and matrilineal descent has no political significance. The *socially patrilineal descent group* will be unmodified by any patterns of preferential marriage. Since this, in Kurdish society, is the politically significant group, the fact of endogamy has no direct political importance. I have therefore chosen to call this patrilineal descent group a *lineage* when politically recognized.

After an orientation on some factors which are uniform over the whole South Kurdish area, notably in the field of subsistence and kinship, the formal lineage organization will be discussed, as well as the basic patterns of non-tribal formal organization, and the fundamental composition of the smallest local groups will be treated.

However, the formal political organization gives only a partial pic- (2) ✱
ture of the actual power hierarchy and organization in the village;
and the remainder of the paper will attempt to show how this power
hierarchy emerges, and what the characteristics of the resulting types
of social organization are.

By way of introduction, the ethnic position and history of the (3) ✱
Kurds should be sketched briefly. The great majority of Kurds are
nomads, and have been for some time, settled or transhumant pas-
toral agriculturalists and stock-breeders; some tribes are still purely
pastoral nomads, of what has been called the «vertical» Persian type.
The Kurds inhabit the mountainous country stretching from the (5)
Euphrates in northern Syria and Turkey to Kermanshah in Persia;
the backbone of this country is formed by the Zagros mountains.
Towards the Mesopotamian plain they extend roughly through the
foothill zone; to the North and East, Kurdish territory blends into
that of Armenia and Azerbaijan. In south of their area, Kurds make
up only a minority of the total population. Southern Kurdistan is,
on the other hand, almost exclusively inhabited by Kurds. (cf. Map
No. 1.)

The population density in most Kurdish territory is very low, the (6.)
characteristic settlement pattern is a small, compact village of 50
to 100 inhabitants, widely scattered over the area. The Kurds today
are estimated to number some 3 million (The Royal Institute of
International Affairs, 1951), but of that figure a great number are
urbanized or turbanized, and Kurds by descent only.

The Kurdish language belongs to the Indo-European stock and (8)
shows great similarity to Persian, but also salient features that suggest
a process of parallel development and borrowing rather than recent
splitting. Literary efforts in Kurdish have been only sporadic. His- (9)
torical records seem to accord Kurds as an ethnic group considerable
antiquity in the area (Minorsky, 1943), assuming them to be the
Carduchi who harried the retreat of Xenophon's 10 000 (401—400
B.C.). Early converted to Islam, independent Kurd principalities
attained some degree of organization only after the fall of the Abba-
sid Caliphate, but generally played a minor role (except in producing
Salaun Saladin at the time of the 3rd Crusade). A major part of

[page continues on p. 3]

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[redacted]

[redacted]

[redacted]

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[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

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[42]

[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

B: Leach 6-8 (1938) 1940 Hall Ward Hall
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B: Leeds E-S. (1958) 1960 WAII Rural WAII
Kawambazi

[redacted]

The Relevance of Technology for a Social Study

[redacted] The earliest type of ethnographic monograph which might only be termed an historical study the customs and customs of primitive peoples was predominantly economic in its description of technological detail. In contrast to this many of the latest anthropological works with their sub-theoretical sociological emphasis have ignored technological detail altogether. In a volume that seeks to establish general laws for human behaviour it is impossible to find room to emphasize the exceptional nature that the predisposition of different cultures, and from this point of view the dissemination of general sociological and economic principles is of greater importance than the various achievements of the local variants of a particular technique. Nevertheless the technique of a people are not merely of historical significance. They can have a fascinating bearing upon their economic structure.

Social anthropologists rightly object the existence of over simple relationship between the social forms of a culture and its material material aspects, but the nature of this relationship is rather specifically examined. The inherent tends to be so subjectively as the dominant concept of social structure, that the consideration of a formal material structure is overlooked altogether. But the social form and the material form are surely equally significant aspects of human adjustment to the given facts of climate and environment? The tendency in the past has been to see material facts merely as a slight rough aide which to demonstrate the interlocking unity of social forms. For my part I have purposely left all material descriptions to the last since by so doing it is more easy to demonstrate the close correlation that exists between the social and the material forms and to show that reference to the one implies questions and acknowledgement reference to the other. The recognition of this correlation is especially important where the attention is one of culture change. In so far as the anthropologist's aim becomes one of predicting the trend and development of change, his method must be to isolate and evaluate the forces of conservatism and resistance to different aspects of the culture as he sees it. It is part of my argument that any such evaluation based on a consideration of social trends alone is necessarily incomplete. It does seem to me that, whilst forces exist to operate as of permanent importance, but to others it is technical factors which provide the ultimate determining factor as to which direction a new social development will take. Conservatism in the final analysis is a highly complex amalgam of social obligations, psychological reluctance, and actual technical inability to effect change. A direct correlation between the social and the material aspects of a Turkish hill village should therefore be of interest.

(2)
The Eastern Kandyans

On the other hand on the positive side I have attempted to point out generalizations of the form "the Sinhalese among themselves" by one methodology are not true to record the "opposite and contrast" of the Sinhalese. Further I have tried to throw some light on the continuing tension of conflict and opposition that affect the lives of the small group of people inhabiting this Kandyan area. If there is any merit in the point of view that emphasizes some aspect the continuity of enduring psychological values in cultural groups, again and again the facts on a group have been internal complexities, transitions, [illegible] events, unusual and a human beings reactions, this study of [illegible] does that there can be no such easy classifications. It is true that the structural patterns of a society does impose some restrictions upon predispositions of individuals, but that structural patterns affords the dynamics of different individuals to achieve different ends and their resulting reactions differ considerably. There was space to describe variability in the cultural data, which has been stressed which only on a process of conflicting viewpoints and divergent attitudes. All cultural groups, no matter how studies they appear to the light of history, are simply snapshots of any given time in a constant state of flux and potential change, the failure to accept generalizations.

Now the changes, after studies and disagreements, that active social conditions of Kandyan Sinhalese society in together and can be used from modified assignment changes that take place all the time area that the culture going to functioning under "normal" conditions, however there may be difficult. The emphasis of culture change is to be found in the reaction of individuals to these differentiated economic and political conditions. Viewed in this light the particular area of a small and obscure Kandyan valley may have a wide and general relevance, providing area in the conditions of our own society. The study of processes of change and development by a method, problem for anthropologists. As an anthropologist I would argue that these processes can best be studied in the economically subsistence of a small and relatively isolated group, where the limits of individual behaviour are by clearly recognized, but the problem is one of general significance.

In conclusion, as far as the facts are concerned, I will merely express the hope that this analysis is some part out of date by more systematic research.